

The influence of water on the strength of Neapolitan Yellow
Tuff, the most widely-used building stone in Naples (Italy)

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Abstract

Neapolitan Yellow Tuff (NYT) has been used in construction in Naples (Italy)
since the Greeks founded the city—then called Neapolis—in the 6th century BCE. We
investigate here whether this popular building stone is weaker when saturated with
water, an issue important for assessments of weathering damage and monument
preservation. To this end, we performed 28 uniaxial compressive strength
measurements on dry and water-saturated samples cored from a block of the lithified
Upper Member of the NYT. Our experiments show that the strength of the zeolite-
rich NYT is systematically reduced when saturated with water (the ratio of wet to dry

strength is 0.63). Complementary experiments show that two other common Neapolitan building stones—Piperno Tuff and the grey Campanian Ignimbrite (both facies of the Campanian Ignimbrite deposit devoid of zeolites)—do not weaken when wet. From these data, and previously published data for tuffs around the globe, we conclude that the water-weakening in NYT is a consequence of the presence of abundant zeolites (the block tested herein contains 46 wt.% of zeolites). These data may help explain weathering damage in NYT building stones (due to rainfall, rising damp, and proximity to the sea or water table) and the observed link between rainfall and landslides, rock falls, and sinkhole formation in Naples, and the weathering of other buildings built from zeolite-rich tuffs worldwide.

Keywords: zeolites; uniaxial compressive strength; porosity; mercury porosimetry

1 Introduction

For millennia, tuffs have been used worldwide as a building stone (Heiken, 2006). Cities built on and constructed using tuff span six of the seven continents (all except Antarctica). Tuff has been used as a building material in Naples (Italy; Figure 1) since the city's birth as Neapolis in the 6th century BCE (e.g., Calcaterra et al., 2000; de'Gennaro et al., 2000a; Evangelista et al., 2000a; Colella et al., 2001, Calcaterra et al., 2005; Morra et al., 2010; Aversa et al., 2013; Colella et al., 2017). The most commonly used tuff in Naples is the Neapolitan Yellow Tuff (NYT), the product of a large phreatoplinian eruption from the adjacent Campi Flegrei volcanic district (e.g., Orsi et al., 1992; Scarpato et al., 1993; Wohletz et al., 1995; Orsi et al., 1996; Civetta et al., 1997) about 15,000 years ago (Deino et al., 2004). However, laboratory experiments on tuff show that they are sometimes weaker when saturated

with water (e.g., Schultz and Li, 1995; Yassaghi et al., 2005; Jackson et al., 2005; Montanaro et al., 2016). The metric “water-weakening”, the ratio of the wet to dry strength of a material, is often used to describe this affect (Zhu et al., 2011), where low values (close to zero) indicate a strong water-weakening effect and values at or close to unity indicate that there is little or no water-weakening. A water-weakening assessment of the NYT is particularly important due to the prevalence of water related weathering typologies seen on buildings in Naples (e.g., de’Gennaro et al., 1993, 2000a; Di Benedetto et al., 2015).

The stratigraphy of the NYT is divided into two members: a Lower Member (comprising fall deposits and pyroclastic flow deposits) and an Upper Member (comprising pyroclastic flow deposits) (Scarpati et al., 1993; Cole and Scarpati, 1993). The Upper Member is composed of the deposits of a non-turbulent pyroclastic density flow and five low- and high-concentration turbulent pyroclastic density flows (Cole and Scarpati, 1993). The Upper Member is variably lithified and is preserved as either unlithified grey “pozzolana” material or a lithified yellow rock (e.g., Scarpati et al., 1993; Cole and Scarpati, 1993; de’Gennaro et al., 2000b). The lithified Upper Member has been divided into four texturally distinct units, classified by the size and quantity of lithic and porous juvenile fragments (Colella et al., 2017). The lithified Upper Member of the NYT has not only been used in the construction of monuments such as Castel dell’Ovo, Castel Nuovo, the churches of Santa Chiara and San Domenico Maggiore, and the Academy of Fine Arts, but also in many of the walls and houses within the ancient city centre of Naples (Figure 2).

The lithified Upper Member of the NYT is a particularly well-studied material, for a number of reasons. First, due to its prevalent use in construction in the Neapolitan area (de’Gennaro et al., 1993; Aversa and Evangelista, 1998; de’Gennaro

et al., 2000a; Evangelista et al., 2000a; Augenti and Parisi, 2010; Nijland et al., 2010; Calderoni et al., 2010; Heap et al., 2012; Di Benedetto et al., 2015; La Russa et al., 2017; Colella et al., 2017). Second, due to alarming frequency of landslide and rock fall hazards (Calcaterra et al., 2002; Di Martire et al., 2002; Calcaterra et al., 2007; Nocilla et al., 2009) and underground cavity collapse and anthropogenic sinkhole formation (Evangelista et al., 2000b; Hall et al., 2005; Guarino and Nisio, 2012; Guarino et al., 2018) associated with the NYT. Third, the NYT contains abundant zeolites, aluminosilicate minerals of commercial, industrial, and environmental importance (de’Gennaro et al., 1990, 2000a; Coppola et al., 2002; Colella, 2005). Finally, since NYT is one of the principal lithologies forming the increasingly restless Campi Flegrei caldera (Orsi et al., 1996; Di Vito et al., 1999; Chiodini et al., 2001; Heap et al., 2014; Chiodini et al., 2015; Mayer et al., 2016; Montanaro et al., 2016; Kilburn et al., 2017; Chiodini et al., 2017; Cardellini et al., 2017), a detailed understanding of the physical and mechanical properties of the NYT form an important component of volcanic risk assessment and mitigation.

These studies, amongst others, have shown that the lithified Upper Member of the NYT is a heterogeneous trachytic pyroclastic deposit that is characterised by both pyrogenic and authigenic phases (de’Gennaro et al., 1990). It contains variably quantities of porous juvenile lapilli (i.e., pumice) fragments (between ~8 and ~40%) and lithic fragments (between ~7 and ~16%) (Colella et al., 2017). The NYT typically contains a large proportion of plagioclase phenocrysts (between ~14 and ~36 wt.%; Colella et al., 2017), amorphous phases (~10 wt.%; Di Benedetto et al., 2015; Colella et al., 2017), and zeolites, namely K-rich phillipsite, chabazite, and analcime (Gatta et al., 2010; Heap et al., 2012; Di Benedetto et al., 2015; Colella et al., 2017). The mean content of zeolites within the NYT can exceed 50 wt.% (de’Gennaro et al., 1990,

2000a; Di Benedetto et al., 2015; Colella et al., 2017). Also found within the NYT are subordinate smectite (between 0 and 6 wt.%; Di Benedetto et al., 2015; Colella et al., 2017) and phenocrysts of sanidine, clinopyroxene, biotite, and minor quantities of Ti-magnetite and apatite (Heap et al., 2012; Di Benedetto et al., 2015).

Due to the heterogeneity of the lithified Upper Member of the NYT (e.g., Scarpati et al., 1993; Cole and Scarpati, 1993; Colella et al., 2017), its physical properties are equally heterogeneous. For example, its porosity and permeability can range from 0.35 and 0.65 (Colella et al., 2017) and 10^{-17} and 10^{-13} m² (Peluso and Arienzo, 2007; Heap et al., 2014; Montanaro et al., 2016), respectively. Reported values of uniaxial compressive strength (UCS) of NYT typically vary between ~1 and ~10 MPa, although it can be as strong as ~40 MPa (Evangelista and Aversa, 1994; Hall et al., 2005; Augenti and Parisi, 2009; Heap et al., 2012; Montanaro et al., 2016; Colella et al., 2017). Further, and due to its high porosity, triaxial deformation experiments have shown that NYT is compactant (i.e. ductile) even at very low effective pressures (< 5 MPa) and under ambient laboratory temperatures (Aversa and Evangelista, 1998; Heap et al., 2014).

The physical and mechanical properties of tuffs are well known to be influenced by exposure to the elements, as recognised by Vitruvius as far back as pre-Christian Rome (Italy), where he wrote: “*There are also many other kinds, such as red and black tuff in Campania, [and] in Umbria, Piceno and in Venetia white, which, indeed, can be cut like wood by means of a serrated or toothed saw. So long as these soft stones are sheltered under plaster they will hold up and do their work but if they are laid bare or exposed in the open air, ice and frost accumulate within them and they crumble apart and dissolve. Also along the sea coast salt eats at them and they dissolve apart; neither do they endure sea tides and spray.*” (from De

Architettura 2.7.1-2 as quoted in Jackson et al., 2006). Indeed, and more recently, NYT has been shown to degrade during salt crystallization tests (La Russa et al., 2017) and the UCS and indirect tensile strength of zeolite-rich NYT was found to decrease following exposure to the high-temperatures of fire (Heap et al., 2012). However, since the early work of Evangelista (1980), an unpublished report containing experiments that show that the peak strength of NYT is reduced when water-saturated, the water-weakening behaviour of the lithified Upper Member of the NYT has received little attention in the literature. To the authors' knowledge, only Montanaro et al. (2016) provide a handful of UCS experiments (three dry and three water-saturated) that show that NYT is weaker when saturated with water (dry UCS = 6.1-7.3 MPa; wet UCS = 1.2-2.3 MPa). The lack of a comprehensive study is surprising on two counts. First, deformation experiments on tuffs have highlighted that they are weaker when saturated with water (e.g., Schultz and Li, 1995; Yassaghi et al., 2005; Jackson et al., 2005; Montanaro et al., 2016). Second, a survey of weathering typologies in buildings in Naples constructed with NYT found that the most prevalent weathering type was the result of moisture (due to rising damp) and rainfall (de'Gennaro et al., 2000a). This type of weathering results in alveolisation (detachment of lithic and porous juvenile fragments), scaling, exfoliation, and disaggregation, as shown in Figure 3 (see also de'Gennaro et al., 1993, 2000a; Di Benedetto et al., 2015). We thus report, herein, on the results of an experimental study that quantifies the water-weakening behaviour of a facies of the NYT often used in construction in the Neapolitan area.

2 Experimental material and methods

We performed uniaxial compressive strength (UCS) measurements on cylindrical samples of NYT cored in the same orientation from a single block. The block of NYT (from the lithified yellow Upper Member) was sourced from an open quarry at Monte San Severino, at the boundary of the inferred Campi Flegrei caldera (the same block used in Heap et al., 2012, 2014; see Figure 1 for sample location). Importantly, this quarry has supplied dimension stones (natural stone or rock that has been selected and finished to a specific size or shape) for building projects within the Neapolitan area. Due to the presence of centimetric juvenile lapillis, the NYT tested herein is similar to the facies “MC” described by Colella et al. (2017).

A total of 28 samples were cored to a diameter of either 25 or 20 mm and cut and precision-ground to a nominal length of 60 or 40 mm, respectively (a photograph of a 20 mm-diameter sample is provided as Figure 4a). Samples were cored so as to avoid centimetric juvenile lapillis and lithic fragments. To avoid the washout of juvenile lapilli and the fine fraction, the sample block was first soaked in water and then cored dry (i.e., samples were cored without running water). The prepared cylindrical samples were then washed with water to remove any water-soluble grinding fluid and vacuum-dried in an oven for at least 48 hours at 40 °C. The connected porosity of each sample was then determined using the skeletal (connected) volume of the sample given by a helium pycnometer (Micromeritics AccuPyc II 1340) and the bulk volume of the sample calculated using the sample dimensions. Finally, the samples were deformed uniaxially at a strain rate of $1.0 \times 10^{-5} \text{ s}^{-1}$ until macroscopic failure. Thirteen of the samples were deformed “dry” (dried in a vacuum-oven for at least 48 hours prior to deformation) and 15 were deformed “wet” (vacuum-saturated in deionised water and deformed in a water bath). The water

saturation procedure for the samples deformed in the “wet” condition consisted of two steps:

- (1) the vacuum-dried samples were placed inside a belljar which was then vacuumed for at least 12 h and, finally,
- (2) degassed (using a Venturi siphon with municipal water as the motive fluid) deionised water was introduced into the belljar whilst under vacuum.

A mercury injection test was performed on a small vacuum-dried offcut (~3.5 g) of NYT using the Micromeritics Autopore IV 9500 at the University of Aberdeen (Scotland). The evacuation pressure and evacuation time were 50 μ m Hg and 5 min, respectively, and the mercury filling pressure and equilibration time were 3.59 MPa and 10 s, respectively. The pressure range was 0.69 to 413.69 MPa. Mercury injection data permit the estimation of connected porosity and pore throat size distribution. The mercury injection data were corrected for the “low pressure correction” recommended by the American Section of the International Association for Testing Materials (ASTM D4404-10).

The mineral content of the studied NYT was quantified using X-ray powder diffraction (XRPD). A powder, prepared from the deformed NYT cores and containing 10 wt.% ZnO as internal standard, was ground for 8 min with 10 ml of isopropyl alcohol in a McCrone Micronising Mill using agate cylinder elements. The XRPD analyses were performed on powder mounts using a PW 1800 X-ray diffractometer (CuK α , graphite monochromator, 10 mm automatic divergence slit, step-scan 0.02° with 2 θ increments per second, counting time one second per increment, 30 mA, 40 kV). The phases in the whole rock powders were quantified using the Rietveld program BGMN (Bergmann et al., 1998). To identify the clay minerals, we also separated <2 μ m fractions by gravitational settling and prepared

oriented mounts that were X-rayed in an air-dried and ethylene-glycolated state. Since some of the constituents of the NYT are delicate (juvenile lapilli), and/or may be affected by vacuum-drying (zeolites and clays), we chose to prepare our powdered sample for XRPD analysis using the deformed core samples so that the mineral content determined is representative of the deformed samples, rather than the block prior to sample preparation. Although our samples were prepared with the utmost care, we cannot definitively rule out that their mineral content was slightly modified by the sample preparation procedure.

3 Results

3.1 Mineral content and microstructure

The microstructure of the NYT used in this study contains phenocrysts (of K-feldspar, clinopyroxene, and biotite) and juvenile lapilli within a fine-grained matrix (Figure 4b). Table 1 gives the XRPD analysis, which shows that the main minerals within the NYT are amorphous phases (36 wt.%, Table 1) and two zeolites: chabazite (30 wt.%, Table 1) and phillipsite (16 wt.%, Table 1). The block of NYT also contains 10 wt.% K-feldspar, 3 wt.% clinopyroxene, 3 wt.% smectite, and 2 wt.% biotite (Table 1). The total proportion of zeolites (chabazite and phillipsite) is therefore 46 wt.%. We note that the amorphous phase (36 wt.%, Table 1) measured is likely to contain little residual glass (Colella et al., 2017) and could include an aluminosilicate gel-like component (de’Gennaro and Colella, 1989; Colella et al., 2017).

3.2 Experimental data

The NYT studied has an average dry bulk density of 1,240 kg.m⁻³ and an average connected porosity of 0.458 (standard deviation: 0.0079) (Table 2). A connected porosity of 0.446 was determined from the mercury injection data. The pore throat size distribution for NYT is shown in Figure 5a. These data show that pore throats of diameter $\geq 10 \mu\text{m}$ constitute ~10% of the pores by volume (Figure 5a). The majority of pores (~65%) have a diameter between 0.3 and 3 μm (Figure 5a). The average pore throat diameter was determined to be 0.21 μm .

Representative uniaxial stress-strain curves for dry and wet NYT samples are shown in Figure 5b, and the UCS is plotted as a function of connected porosity in Figure 5c (data given in Table 2). The average wet and dry strength was found to be 3.50 and 5.58 MPa, respectively. The ratio of wet to dry strength—a metric commonly used to assess water-weakening in rocks (Zhu et al., 2011)—is 0.63.

4 Discussion

We have performed UCS tests on cylindrical cores of dry and water-saturated NYT either 20 or 25 mm in diameter. Although these diameters are standard in volcanological studies, the strength of engineering materials is typically determined on samples that are 50 mm in diameter. Due to the influence of sample geometry on the UCS (Hawkes and Mellor, 1970; Hoek and Brown, 1980), we provide here UCS values for 50 mm-diameter core samples using the following empirical relation (Hoek and Brown, 1980):

$$UCS = UCS_{50} \left(\frac{50}{d} \right)^{0.18}, \quad (1)$$

where UCS is the uniaxial compressive strength measured for a cylindrical sample of diameter d (in mm) and UCS_{50} is the uniaxial compressive strength of a 50 mm-diameter core sample. The UCS_{50} values for our experiments are given in Tables 2 and 5. However, although this allows us to better compare our UCS values with those from the engineering literature, we highlight that the goal of this contribution was to understand whether NYT is weaker when water-saturated. In this case, the metric of interest—the ratio of wet to dry UCS—is independent of sample diameter.

Our data show that the UCS of water-saturated NYT is weaker than dry NYT (Figure 5c). These data are in accordance with tuffs sourced from Italy and elsewhere. For example, studies have shown that the tuffs from the Cappadocia (Erdoğan, 1986; Erguvanlı et al., 1989; Topal and Doyuran, 1997; Tuncay, 2009; Erguler and Ulusay, 2009) and Afyonkarahisar (Çelik et al., 2014; Çelik and Ergul, 2015) regions of Turkey, tuffs from different locations in Hungary (Vásárhelyi, 2002), and tuffs from Rome (Jackson et al., 2005) and the Neapolitan area (Montanaro et al., 2016; Marmoni et al., 2017a) are weaker when wet. To test the hypothesis that the presence of zeolites and/or clays is responsible for the observed water-weakening in tuffs, we have collated the available published data on the wet versus dry compressive (Table 3) and tensile (Table 4) strength of tuffs from around the world (Figure 6). All the data are presented in Figure 6a, and Figure 6b shows only UCS data for which the composition is known. The data in Figure 6b have been divided into three groups: (1) tuffs that contain zeolites, (2) tuffs that contain clays but no zeolites, and (3) tuffs that contain neither zeolites nor clays.

To complement these data, we performed ancillary experiments on two tuffs that contain no zeolites or clays – the grey Campanian Ignimbrite (welded grey ignimbrite, WGI) and the Piperno Tuff (PT). Both rocks are facies of the Campanian

Ignimbrite deposit (e.g., Barberi et al., 1978; Rosi et al., 1996; Fedele et al., 2016) and have been used in construction within the Neapolitan area (e.g., Calcaterra et al., 2000; de’Gennaro et al., 2000a; Calcaterra et al., 2005; Morra et al., 2010). The use of PT is particularly widespread in the ancient city centre of Naples, the church of Gesù Nuovo providing a spectacular example (Figure 7). Piperno Tuff was also used to construct the corner towers of Castel Nuovo (Figure 2b). Cylindrical samples (20 mm in diameter and nominally 40 mm in length) were prepared from both the WGI block described in Heap et al. (2012, 2014) and the PT block described in Heap et al. (2012), as described in the methods section above. The WGI samples tested contain hypidiomorphic phenocrysts of alkali feldspar with minor clinopyroxene within a matrix composed of microlites of alkali feldspar, Ti-magnetite, and apatite, as well as well-sorted glass shards with occasional accretionary ash clots and porous lapilli fragments (Heap et al., 2012). Piperno Tuff is characterised by a eutaxitic texture with black flattened scoriae and phenocrysts of alkali feldspar and clinopyroxene set within a light grey matrix of well-sorted glass shards and microlites of alkali feldspar and Ti-magnetite (Heap et al., 2012). Importantly, no zeolites or clays are present within these blocks (see XRD data presented in Heap et al., 2012). The connected porosities of the WGI and PT samples were first determined; the samples were then deformed in either the dry or wet condition (as described in the methods section above). The results of these experiments are summarised in Table 5. The ratio of wet to dry strength in WGI and PT is 0.939 and 1.038, respectively (Figure 6b; Table 3). In other words, based on these data, WGI and PT are not weaker in the presence of water.

Figure 6b suggests that the presence of zeolites and clays promote water-weakening in tuffs, although firm conclusions cannot be drawn due to the paucity of data for zeolite-free tuff. The four samples of zeolite-free tuff (Karaj (crystalline),

Cappadoccian (Kızılıkaya), the WGI, and the PT) show consistently high ratios of UCS_{wet}/UCS_{dry} – between ~ 0.6 and ~ 1.0 (Figure 6b; Table 3). By contrast, zeolite- and clay-bearing tuffs have average UCS_{wet}/UCS_{dry} ratios of 0.54 and 0.37, respectively (Figure 6b; Table 3). We therefore conclude that the water-weakening in NYT is the result of the presence of abundant zeolites (46 wt.% in total; Table 1), although the influence of subordinate clay (3 wt.%; Table 1), thought to promote water-weakening in sandstones (Dyke and Dobereiner, 1991; Schmitt et al., 1994; Demarco et al., 2007; Shakoor and Barefield, 2009), cannot be discounted. We attribute the observed weakening in the presence of water to the hydric expansion of zeolites and clays (e.g., Nijland et al., 2010; Wedekind et al., 2013; López-Doncel et al., 2013). However, based on the available data, we cannot definitively rule out the influence of porosity type (pores versus microcracks), pore shape, average pore size, and pore size distribution, amongst others, on the water-weakening behaviour of tuffs. Indeed, Wedekind et al. (2013) found a correlation between microporosity, average pore radius, and moisture expansion for a variety of tuffs from Mexico, Germany, and Hungary.

We also highlight that, in our study, we compare the strength of dry and fully saturated samples. In reality, it is unlikely that building stones will be fully-saturated with water. However, experimental studies have shown that even low levels of water saturation can result in measurable water-weakening in tuffs (Kleb and Vásárhelyi, 2003; Çelik and Ergül, 2015). For example, Çelik and Ergül (2015) found that immersion in water for 1 h was sufficient to reduce the strength of tuff by $\sim 32\%$. Water-weakening at low levels of water saturation has also been observed in clay-rich sandstones (Dyke and Dobereiner, 1991; Schmitt et al., 1994; Demarco et al., 2007; Shakoor and Barefield, 2009). Therefore, we consider our conclusions, drawn from

experiments on dry and fully saturated samples, are relevant for monuments and buildings constructed using NYT. We further note that we have only tested one facies of the heterogeneous lithified Upper Member of the NYT (Colella et al., 2017). However, yellow-coloured tuffs associated with more recent (post-NYT) eruptions at Campi Flegrei (Gauro and La Pietra Tuffs) also show water-weakening (Montanaro et al., 2016; Table 3). Importantly, these tuffs are texturally different to the facies studied herein. Indeed, one of the La Pietra Tuffs contained very few lapilli-sized lithic and porous juvenile fragments (similar to the “NP” end-member facies of the NYT reported in Colella et al., 2017). Based on these data, we expect the NYT facies that are texturally different to that studied herein will also be weaker when wet (as long as they contain zeolites), although more experiments should now be performed to test this hypothesis.

5 Conclusions

We have shown that a block of the lithified Upper Member of the NYT, often used in construction within the Neapolitan region of Italy, is weaker when water-saturated (Figure 5c). Compiled data on the wet and dry strength of tuffs from across the globe suggest that the cause of the water-weakening is due to the presence of zeolites (Figure 6b). Water-weakening in the zeolite-rich NYT may help explain the widespread weathering observed in Naples due to moisture (as a result of rising damp) and rainfall (Figure 3; de’Gennaro et al., 1993, 2000a; Di Benedetto et al., 2015) and the apparent link between rainfall and landslide and rock fall hazards (Calcaterra et al., 2002; Di Martire et al., 2002; Calcaterra et al., 2007; Nocilla et al., 2009) and sinkhole formation (Guarino and Nisio, 2012). We additionally conclude that the buildings constructed using zeolite-free tuffs, such as the church of Gesù

Nuovo (Figure 7), will be less prone to weathering associated with moisture and rainfall. This latter hypothesis is supported by the observation that, while the WGI is only subject to physical weathering, the zeolitised facies of the Campanian Ignimbrite is more affected by chemical action (de’Gennaro et al., 1995). We anticipate that the implications of this study will be important not only for building and monument preservation in Naples, but also in other cities worldwide constructed using tuff.

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Mineral	Mineral content [wt.%]
Amorphous phase	36 ± 5
K-feldspar	10 ± 1
Biotite	2 ± 1
Clinopyroxene	3 ± 1
Chabazite	30 ± 2
Phillipsite	16 ± 2
Smectite	3 ± 1

633

634 **Table 1.** Quantitative bulk mineralogical composition, determined using X-ray

635 powder diffraction (XRPD), for the Neapolitan Yellow Tuff used in this study.

Sample	Sample diameter [mm]	Connected porosity	Uniaxial compressive strength [MPa]	Experimental condition	Uniaxial compressive strength (diameter = 50 mm) (Equation 1) [MPa]
NYT-1	19.83	0.46	3.71	Wet	3.14
NYT-2	19.82	0.46	5.76	Dry	4.88
NYT-3	19.87	0.44	4.60	Wet	3.90
NYT-4	19.77	0.47	4.87	Dry	4.12
NYT-5	19.83	0.47	3.28	Wet	2.78
NYT-6	19.86	0.45	4.96	Dry	4.20
NYT-8	19.84	0.46	5.32	Dry	4.51
NYT-9	19.84	0.45	3.64	Wet	3.08
NYT-10	19.86	0.45	6.26	Dry	5.30
NYT*-1	19.86	0.46	4.29	Wet	3.63
NYT25-1	24.97	0.47	2.87	Wet	2.53
NYT25-2	24.93	0.47	2.59	Wet	2.29
NYT25-3	25.58	0.46	3.73	Wet	3.31
NYT25-4	24.97	0.47	4.16	Wet	3.67
NYT25-5	24.98	0.46	3.40	Wet	3.00
NYT25-6	25.58	0.46	3.81	Wet	3.38
NYT25-7	24.95	0.45	3.07	Wet	2.71
NYT25-8	24.92	0.45	3.65	Wet	3.22
NYT25-9	25.42	0.46	3.06	Wet	2.71
NYT25-10	25.00	0.47	2.58	Wet	2.28
NYT25-11	24.93	0.45	6.23	Dry	5.50
NYT25-12	25.48	0.46	5.22	Dry	4.62
NYT25-13	25.58	0.46	5.26	Dry	4.66
NYT25-14	24.79	0.45	5.59	Dry	4.93
NYT25-15	24.89	0.45	5.48	Dry	4.83
NYT25-16	24.90	0.45	6.78	Dry	5.98
NYT25-17	24.98	0.46	6.00	Dry	5.30
NYT25-19	25.56	0.46	4.77	Dry	4.23

Table 2. Summary of the 28 experiments performed on Neapolitan Yellow Tuff (NYT) for this study. Wet – vacuum-saturated in deionised water (see text for details). Dry – dried in a vacuum oven at 40 °C for at least 48 h. The uniaxial compressive strength for a sample of 50 mm diameter was calculated using the empirical relation given as Equation (1) (see text for details). The average connected porosities for the samples deformed in the dry and wet condition are 0.456 and 0.459, respectively.

Tuff	Outcrop	Connected porosity	±	UCS_{dry} [MPa]	±	UCS_{wet} [MPa]	±	$\frac{UCS_{wet}}{UCS_{dry}}$	Source	Notes
Anatolian tuff	White	0.39	0.008	10.00	0.88	3.76	0.53	0.376	Topal and Sözmen (2003)	No zeolites. Smectite and Illite present
	Pink	0.33	0.021	16.95	0.54	10.89	1.82	0.642		No zeolites. Smectite, Illite, and Kaolinite present
	White	0.28		8.15		3.55		0.436	Ayday and Göktan (1990)	No zeolites. Smectite and Illite present
	Pink	0.24		18.23		10.46		0.574		No zeolites. Smectite, Illite, and Kaolinite present
Cappadocian tuff	Vertical	0.38	0.005	6.53	0.67	2.16	0.34	0.331	Topal and Doyuran (1997)	Volcanic glass shards are partly altered to smectite
	Horizontal	0.38	0.005	4.87	0.43	0.93	0.29	0.191		
	Vertical	0.29		6.50		3.00		0.462	Erdoğan (1986)	
	Vertical	0.29		6.50		3.00		0.462	Erguvanlı et al. (1989)	
	Kavak	0.27		3.60		1.10		0.306	Tuncay (2009)	Clinoptilolite
		0.21		5.00		1.56		0.312		
		0.24		5.00		1.33		0.266		
	Zelve	0.26		4.20		0.83		0.198		Substantially clinptilolite-rich, but also containing minor erionite, chabazite and phillipsite ¹
	Cemilköy	0.35		1.20		0.44		0.367		
		0.28		2.20		0.52		0.236		No zeolites
	Kızılkaya	0.27		6.30		3.88		0.616		
		0.37		3.40		3.27		0.962		
	Ortahisar	0.34		6.60		1.30		0.197	Erguler and Ulusay (2009)	81 % clay (montmorillonite)
	Ürgüp	0.26		12.90		1.60		0.124		27% clay minerals
		0.26		9.70		1.30		0.134		40% clay minerals
Yucca Mountain tuff	Calico Hills	0.30	0.015	29.09	3.19	5.34	0.77	0.184	Schultz and Li (1995)	Low temperature zeolitic alteration products in Calico Hills rocks include clinoptilolite zeolite, mordenite and smectite ²

¹ Cejka et al. (2007); Temel and Gündoğdu (1994)

² Broxton et al. (1993)

		0.38		36.85	4.15	30.40	7.45	0.825	Price (1982); Price and Jones (1982)	
	Paintbrush tuff	0.40	0.011	4.70	1.20	11.30		2.404	Martin et al. (1994)	Heulandite-clinoptilolite and smectite ³
Karaj tuff	Crystalline	0.10	0.005	121.00	21.00	92.00	14.00	0.760	Yassaghi et al. (2005)	No zeolites
	Vitric	0.13	0.022	92.50	12.50	52.00	3.00	0.562		20% clay minerals
	Lithic	0.09	0.023	98.50	11.50	64.50	6.50	0.655		45% clay minerals
Mt. Nuovo	Upper unit	0.46	0.021	4.85	0.45	2.68	0.88	0.552	Marmoni et al. (2017a)	Glass partially replaced by zeolites (incl. analcime and phillipsite)
	Lower unit	0.21	0.005	33.77	4.03	26.00		0.770		
Urumieh-Dokhtar tuff		0.03		124.30		78.20		0.629	Heidari et al. (2014)	Data not available
Challis tuff	Perpendicular to bedding	0.24		75.01		29.27		0.390	Behre Jr. (1929)	Contains montmorillonite clay and mordenite (zeolite) ⁴
	Parallel to bedding	0.24		78.92		28.52		0.361		
Alaçatı tuff		0.26	0.009	14.90	1.95	6.90	1.03	0.463	Yavuz (2012)	Contains smectite and mordenite
Ayazini tuff		0.37	0.022	22.21	1.47	12.44	0.49	0.560	Çelik et al. (2014)	Illite and smectite present
Seydiler tuff		0.36	0.027	19.07	1.69	9.07	0.25	0.476	Çelik and Ergul (2015)	
Sárospatak rhyolite tuff		0.20		19.47		8.95		0.460	Török et al. (2004)	Montmorillonite and other clay minerals
Oya tuff		0.34		11.20	0.92	5.00	0.51	0.446	Okubo and Chu	Contains clinoptilolite and mordenite

³ Levy and O'Neil (1989)

⁴ Ross and Shannon (1924)

Tage tuff		0.25		16.10	0.92	9.10	0.59	0.565	(1994)	
Monti Sabatini tuff	Tufo Giallo della Prima Porta	0.23		20.40	0.35	9.80	0.11	0.480	Jackson et al. (2005)	Analcime, phillipsite, and chabazite
	Tufo Giallo della Via Tibernia	0.20		22.90	0.94	7.60	0.05	0.332		
Monti Albani tuff	Tufo Lionato	0.15		28.50	0.68	15.90	0.40	0.558		
	Lapis Albanus	0.11		31.30	0.25	16.30	0.39	0.521		
	Tufo di Tusculo	0.15		36.70	1.80	17.30	0.48	0.471		
	Lapis Gabinus	0.14		39.50	4.15	15.50	0.53	0.392		
	Peperino della Via Flaminia	0.13		43.40	6.21	28.80	3.48	0.664		
	Pisolitico di Trigoria	0.35	0.002					0.500 ⁵	Zhu et al. (2011)	Phillipsite and chabazite
	Palatino	0.32	0.004					0.683 ⁶		
Eger-Demjén tuff		0.19		39.75		25.96		0.653	Vásárhelyi, (pers. Comm.)	Contains 10-20% smectite ⁷
		0.40		8.49		3.35		0.395		
		0.39		4.95		1.59		0.321		
		0.51		3.03		0.74		0.244		
		0.37		7.61		2.60		0.342		
		0.36		6.11		1.37		0.224		
		0.36		5.60		1.91		0.341		
		0.38		7.66		2.24		0.292		
		0.40		4.67		1.74		0.373		
		0.58		2.59		1.15		0.444		
		0.34		8.40		2.76		0.329		
		0.38		4.40		0.87		0.198		
		0.39		5.54		2.02		0.365		
		0.41		3.53		0.55		0.156		
		0.34		5.32		2.21		0.415		
		0.35		7.81		2.94		0.376		

⁵ Estimated from P* wet/dry ratio

⁶ Estimated from P* wet/dry ratio

⁷ Wedekind et al. (2013)

		0.37		3.13		0.63		0.201		
		0.38		5.36		1.20		0.224		
Tuff from Hungary	Rhyolite tuff	0.45		2.59		1.18		0.444	Vásárhelyi (2002)	Data not available
		0.30		4.95		1.59		0.321		
		0.32		4.69		1.74		0.371		
		0.29		5.54		2.02		0.365		
		0.27		5.60		1.91		0.341		
		0.30		8.49		3.35		0.395		
		0.30		7.66		2.24		0.292		
		0.30		10.03		7.83		0.781		
		0.28		7.81		2.94		0.376		
		0.29		5.36		1.20		0.224		
		0.29		21.81		21.27		0.975		
		0.15		39.75		26.90		0.677		
	Andesite tuff	0.20		26.00		20.20		0.78		
		0.15		33.50		27.74		0.83		
		0.17		30.33		22.32		0.74		
		0.16		16.30		8.62		0.53		
		0.07		32.60		21.50		0.66		
		0.11		19.80		10.10		0.51		
		0.08		15.60		11.30		0.72		
	Basalt tuff	0.14		28.60		19.80		0.69		
		0.27		8.50		8.30		0.98		
		0.20		3.34		2.48		0.74		
		0.30		3.05		1.76		0.58		
		0.22		4.36		3.40		0.78		
		0.31		8.30		14.04		1.69		
		0.24		8.34		12.88		1.54		
		0.00		3.83		3.10		0.81		
		0.09		14.12		13.07		0.93		
		0.09		40.29		18.43		0.46		
		0.03		63.36		53.2		0.84		
Neapolitan Yellow Tuff		0.49	0.011	6.65	0.65	1.88	0.68	0.28	Montanaro et al. (2016)	Zeolites

La Pietra Tuff 1		0.49	0.004	4.56	0.94	2.27	0.97	0.50		
La Pietra Tuff 2		0.47	0.013	9.74	0.84	3.68	1.32	0.38		
Gauro Tuff		0.46	0.009	11.78	1.17	4.82	0.49	0.41		
Neapolitan Yellow Tuff (this study)	Monte San Severino	0.46	0.017	5.44	0.83	3.81	0.79	0.701	This study	Phillipsite, chabazite, and smectite
Grey Campanian Ignimbrite (WGI; this study)	open quarry to the north-west of the town of Caserta (Italy)	0.50	0.005	10.59	1.31	9.94	1.04	0.939		No zeolites or clays present
Piperno tuff (PT; this study)	open quarry in the Neapolitan area (Italy)	0.51	0.004	3.17		3.29		1.038	This study	No zeolites or clays present

644

645 **Table 3.** Summary of the published (including data from this study) wet and dry uniaxial compressive strength of tuffs from around the globe.

646 UCS_{dry} – dry uniaxial compressive strength; UCS_{wet} – wet uniaxial compressive strength.

647

Tuff	Outcrop	Connected porosity	±	τ_{dry} [MPa]	±	τ_{wet} [MPa]	±	$\frac{\tau_{wet}}{\tau_{dry}}$	Source	Notes
Eger-Demjén		0.35	0.010	3.30	0.57	2.78	0.36	0.844	Stück et al. (2008)	Data not available
Eger-Tihamér		0.36	0.002	0.81	0.14	0.31	0.08	0.386		
Weibern tuff		0.43	0.004	1.64	0.22	1.23	0.14	0.754		Fine grained matrix of zeolite minerals
Rochlitz tuff		0.28	0.005	2.42	0.28	1.47	0.26	0.608		Presence of kaolinite
Habichtswald tuff		0.22	0.013	2.68	0.91	2.37	0.6	0.887		Smectite-zeolite matrix
Loseros tuff	X	0.07		6.29		5.82		0.925	Wedekind et al. (2013)	Kaolinite, illite, and smectite
	Z	0.07		8.25		6.69		0.811		
Cantera Rosa tuff	X	0.41		3.94		2.61		0.662		Smectite and kaolinite
	Z	0.41		4.02		3.00		0.746		
Chiluca tuff	X	0.08		5.13		4.56		0.889		Small amounts of illite and smectite
	Z	0.08		5.61		4.79		0.854		
Gris de los Remedios tuff	X	0.31		2.27		1.39		0.612		Smectites and traces of muscovite/illite
	Z	0.31		2.24		1.58		0.773		
Cantera Formación tuff	X	0.13		10.65		8.23		0.773		Kaolinite and halloysite

	Z	0.13		9.89		8.71		0.881		
Cantera Blanca tuff	X	0.15		6.90		3.99		0.578		Mordenite, clinoptilolite, and montmorillonite
	Z	0.15		5.89		3.11		0.528		
Bufa tuff	X	0.18		6.04		3.65		0.604		Illite and smectite
	Z	0.18		6.95		4.57		0.658		
Tenayocátl tuff	X	0.05		5.43		3.94		0.726		Smectite
	Z	0.05		5.71		4.12		0.722		
Cantera Amarilla tuff	X	0.42		0.99		0.49		0.495		Smectite, kaolinite, and halloysite
	Z	0.42		1.05		0.56		0.533		
Hilbersdorf tuff	X	0.30		3.70		1.14		0.308		Illite
	Z	0.30		4.62		3.10		0.671		

648

649 **Table 4.** Summary of the published wet and dry tensile strengths of tuffs from around the globe. τ_{dry} – dry tensile strength; τ_{wet} – wet tensile

650 strength.

651

Sample	Sample diameter [mm]	Connected porosity	Uniaxial compressive strength [MPa]	Experimental condition	Uniaxial compressive strength (diameter = 50 mm) (Equation 1) [MPa]
PIP-1	20.26	0.51	3.17	Dry	2.69
PIP-2	20.29	0.50	3.29	Wet	2.80
CI-4	19.85	0.50	10.97	Wet	9.29
CI-9	19.79	0.50	9.54	Wet	8.07
CI-10	19.82	0.50	9.59	Wet	8.12
CI-11	19.83	0.50	9.65	Wet	8.17
CI-13	19.81	0.50	10.88	Dry	9.21
CI-19	19.81	0.50	10.17	Dry	8.61
CI-20	19.83	0.50	11.05	Dry	9.36
CI-21	19.83	0.50	8.95	Dry	7.58
CI-22	19.84	0.50	11.90	Dry	10.08
CI*-2	19.83	0.50	10.94	Wet	9.26

652

653 **Table 5.** Summary of the experiments performed on Piperno Tuff (labelled “PIP”)
654 and the grey Campanian Ignimbrite (labelled “CI”) for this study. Wet – vacuum-
655 saturated in deionised water (see text for details). Dry – dried in a vacuum oven at 40
656 °C for at least 48 h. The uniaxial compressive strength for a sample of 50 mm
657 diameter was calculated using the empirical relation given as Equation (1) (see text
658 for details).

659

Figure captions

Figure 1. Maps showing the location of Naples (inset is a map of Italy). The inferred Campi Flegrei caldera is indicated by the dashed circle, and the main towns with blue dots. The Neapolitan Yellow Tuff (NYT) used in this study was collected from an open quarry at Monte San Severino, on the border of the inferred Campi Flegrei caldera.

Figure 2. Photographs of buildings constructed using Neapolitan Yellow Tuff (NYT) in Naples. (a) Castel dell'Ovo, (b) Castel Nuovo, (c) the church of Santa Chiara, (d) the church of San Domenico Maggiore, (e) the Academy of Fine Arts, and (f) a plastered wall constructed using NYT within the ancient city centre of Naples.

Figure 3. (a) Weathering on a wall constructed using Neapolitan Yellow Tuff (NYT) within the ancient city centre of Naples. (b) and (c) Weathering on NYT walls within the Castel dell'Ovo.

Figure 4. A photograph (a) and an optical photomicrograph (b) of the Neapolitan Yellow Tuff (NYT) used in this study (modified from Heap et al., 2012). A K-feldspar and clinopyroxene phenocryst and a porous juvenile lapilli fragment are labelled on the photomicrograph.

Figure 5. (a) Pore throat diameter distribution for the Neapolitan Yellow Tuff (NYT) determined using mercury porosimetry. (b) Representative uniaxial stress-strain curves for a sample of wet (blue curve) and dry (black curve) NYT. (c) Uniaxial

compressive strength (UCS) as a function of connected porosity for the NYT. Error associated with transducer precision is within the size of the symbols.

Figure 6. (a) Water-weakening (ratio of wet to dry strength) as a function of porosity for tuffs all over the world. (b) Ratio of wet to dry uniaxial compressive strength as a function of porosity (data for which the composition is known). Data are in three groups (1) tuffs that contain zeolites (white circles), (2) tuffs that contain clays but no zeolites (grey circles), and (3) tuffs that contain neither zeolites nor clays (black circles). Data from: this study, Behre Jr. (1929), Price (1982), Price and Jones (1982), Erdoğan (1986), Erguvanlı et al. (1989), Ayday and Göktan (1990), Martin et al. (1994), Okubo and Chu (1994), Schultz and Li (1995), Topal and Doyuran (1997), Vásárhelyi (2002), Topal and Sözman (2003), Török et al. (2004), Yassaghi et al. (2005), Jackson et al. (2005), Tuncay (2009), Stück et al. (2008), Erguler and Ulusay (2009), Zhu et al. (2011), Heidari et al. (2013), Wedekind et al. (2013), Çelik et al. (2014), Çelik and Ergul (2015), Montanaro et al. (2016), Marmoni et al. (2017a), and Vásárhelyi (pers. comm.).

Figure 7. (a) Photograph of the church of Gesù Nuovo in Naples. (b) Photograph of front of the church of Gesù Nuovo showing the pyramid-shaped bossage constructed using Piperno Tuff.

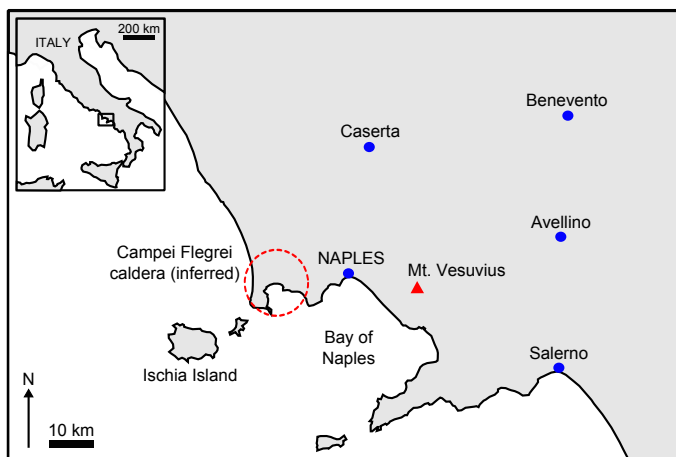


Figure 1; Heap et al.





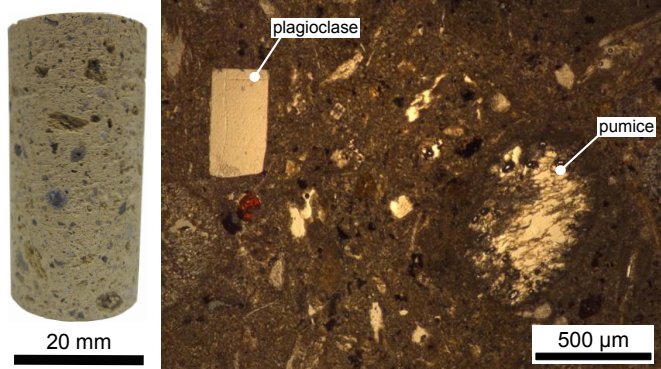


Figure 4; Heap et al.

